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NOTE

The term 'Britain' is used informally in the *Survey of Current Affairs* to mean the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. 'Great Britain' comprises England, Wales and Scotland.

CSCE and Human Rights

The need to make progress at the Vienna review meeting of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE), particularly in the areas of human rights and human contacts, was emphasised by Mr David Mellor, Minister of State at the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, speaking in Vienna on 15 April. The meeting had achieved little in 18 months, Mr Mellor noted, and this contrasted with the progress made in other areas of East-West relations such as arms control and Afghanistan.

The Vienna meeting, the third review of the Helsinki Final Act signed by 35 states in 1975, opened in November 1986 (see pp 347-9, 1986). The Final Act is not a treaty or a legally binding agreement, but a charter and code of conduct of behaviour for what participants hope will become a more normal and open relationship between governments and people in East and West. As the then British Prime Minister, Mr Harold Wilson (now Lord Wilson of Rievaulx), told the House of Commons on 6 August 1975, the Final Act is 'a set of political understandings which will, at the very least, provide a yardstick against which future behaviour can be measured and judged'.

The Final Act contains undertakings, grouped under four main headings or 'baskets', about security, human rights, and co-operation in economic, humanitarian and other matters. The central pivots of the human rights provisions are contained in a 'Declaration on Principles Guiding Relations between Participating States', which forms part of the first 'basket' relating to security in Europe. In the seventh and eighth principles the participating states agree to respect human rights and fundamental freedoms including the freedom of thought, conscience and religion or belief, and recognise that these rights and freedoms are essential for the development of friendly relations and co-operation among all states. Further, they agree to respect the equal rights and self-determination of people, stating that 'all people always have the right, in full freedom, to determine, when and as they wish, their internal and external political status, without external interference, and to pursue as they wish their political, economic, social, and cultural development'.

Related provisions concerning human contact and freedom of movement are contained in the third 'basket' concerned with co-operation in humanitarian and other fields. In these the participants agree to co-operate with a view to creating better conditions for increased cultural and educational exchanges, broader dissemination of information, and contacts between people, including solutions to humanitarian problems, such as marriage, requests for visits, and the reunification of families, and greater travel and contacts and exchanges among young people.

BRITISH VIEWS

Britain's aims at the Vienna meeting, Mr Mellor stated, were threefold: better implementation of existing commitments, better commitments for the future, and better follow-up arrangements. However, there was a noticeable tendency for some CSCE signatories, when considering new provisions, to lose sight of what had been agreed in the past. Britain wanted to see the Helsinki Final Act and the Madrid Concluding Document (issued at the end of the second review meeting which was held in Madrid between 1980 and 1983; see pp 375-8, 1983) implemented in full. Expectations raised at Helsinki in 1975 had been raised even more by talk in the Soviet Union of *glasnost* (openness) and *perestroika* (political restructuring), but people in Eastern Europe, who had heard too many words and not seen enough deeds, had yet to come into the inheritance promised to them in 1975. It was quite clear to everyone which commitments had been fulfilled or not, and who should be trying harder. The West understood that everything could not be done at once, and it was encouraged by the trends that the Soviet leader, Mr Mikhail Gorbachev, had set in motion in the Soviet Union in the face of a difficult legacy of 'old thinking'. It also welcomed the specific improvements which he and others have made, since greater openness led to greater confidence.

Implementation

These glimmers of hope, however, had to be set against a gloomier background. Long-term imprisonment for political cases might be less common than in the past, but in some countries 'the brutal trappings of a repressive era' – intimidation, detentions, confiscations of property, travel restrictions and physical assaults – were still used to keep people in line. Such behaviour was unacceptable, Mr Mellor stated, and could only be prevented by a thorough revision of the law with procedural

guarantees against abuses to ensure respect for international commitments. 'Societies which fail to do this', he said, 'will continue to be labelled with justification inhumane, unjust and uncivilised.' The West was watching with eager anticipation and great goodwill Mr Gorbachev's efforts to try to institute in the Soviet Union certain safeguards for the individual in, for example, the field of psychiatry.

Other countries, however, seemed to be slipping back into a bygone era, Mr Mellor continued. In Czechoslovakia in March 1988 members of the public, including Charter 77 signatories,[1] were arrested and assaulted outside the house of a British diplomat where they were to be given dinner. A few days later a peaceful religious gathering was viciously broken up by the police using truncheons and water cannons and several hundred arbitrary arrests were made. An accredited BBC correspondent at the meeting was also attacked by the police. Britain's legitimate protests about these events were at first curtly rejected and later received an inadequate response. The situation in Romania and Bulgaria was also continuing to give grave cause for concern, he said, with widespread and massive abuse of basic human rights, including religious rights and those of national minorities. In the Soviet Union, despite the efforts of Mr Gorbachev, Jewish emigration remained paltry in comparison with the late 1970s. National service was being used deliberately to hinder would-be emigrants, while restrictions for reasons of national security were being interpreted so widely that they affected even the relatives of those with access to so-called state secrets. Arbitrary bureaucratic decisions still seemed to be common, numerous religious and political prisoners remained incarcerated, and some external broadcasts were being jammed.[2]

Mr Mellor realised that no society was perfect. Britain and other Western countries had their own problems, but these were in the open and freely criticised. Moreoever, Western governments were regularly subjected to the test of the ballot box, the opinion poll and the rigorous scrutiny of a free press, and all Westerners were equal under the law.

Better Provisions

Mr Mellor said that the provisions of the Final Act and Madrid Concluding Document were full of escape clauses, caveats and ambiguities; they had to be made more effective so that exceptions were not the rule. The greatest shortfall between words and action was in those provisions concerned with human rights and contacts. To overcome this, there were certain provisions which had to be included in any Vienna Concluding Document, including:

– recognition that freedom of movement had to be the general rule, since travel was the greatest confidence-building measure;

– guaranteed freedom of conscience and religion;

– recognition that the activities of non-official human rights monitoring organisations were legitimate and would be safeguarded;

– elimination of all discrimination against national minorities;

– opportunities to know and act upon one's human rights and to seek effective redress against violations;

– solutions to all outstanding human contacts cases and regular reviews of future applications for contacts;

– precise time limits for resolving outstanding human contacts cases, for permission for urgent family visits, and for processing of urgent humanitarian cases; and

– recognition of the right of families to travel together if they wish; of the irrelevance of the circumstances in which a member of the family has previously left his country; and of emigrants' right to have a degree of choice with regard to the country of destination

Acceptance of these Western proposals and others would prove that the 'new thinking' was serious about human rights, the Minister continued. 'It would help *glasnost* to become an achievement, not just an agenda. It would help to prove that all CSCE countries are prepared to interpret their commitment seriously and sensibly in the future.' The West's demands, for the most part, merely reflected rights which, according to the authorities in Moscow and elsewhere, already existed, and other Western proposals mirrored voluntary assurances given by the East of changes which were said to be just around the corner. The ordinary citizen in the Soviet Union was still waiting to see revisions to the penal code, amended legislation on emigration, and an end to the arbitrary use of psychiatry which were promised months ago. The West had also been given glimpses of greater freedom of religious association. Mr Mellor pointed out that 'promises cannot be divorced from fulfilment for ever. A time must come when those making the assurances must deliver.'

The Future

The West's priorities for follow-up activities concentrated on the central aspects of security, human rights and human contacts, and improving the flow of information between East and West. On the first, security, Britain was playing its part to ensure the launch of confidence- and security-building talks between all the 35 countries participating in the CSCE process (see p 231, 1987). Progress was also being made in drawing up a mandate for conventional stability talks among the 23 participating states (see p 102fn). However, while these negotiations were important, they were no more important than the key human rights issues, Mr Mellor said,

[1]The Charter 77 movement was launched in January 1977. Those subscribing to the Charter, or statement of human rights, called on the authorities to respect the UN Covenants on Civil and Political and Economic and Social Rights (which Czechoslovakia ratified in 1976) and the civil liberties safeguarded by Czech law.

[2]In the aftermath of the invasion of Afghanistan in December 1979 and the banning in Poland of the independent trade union Solidarity in 1981, Western broadcasting (including the Voice of America, Deutsche Welle and the BBC's External Services) to the East has been hindered by the extensive use of jamming by the Soviet Union and other Eastern European governments. However, the jamming of the BBC Russian and Polish services ceased in January 1987 and January 1988 respectively.

and it would not be enough to succeed on one if they failed miserably on the other. 'We will not be bought off in that way', he warned.

The West also wanted to provide for an Economic Conference in the Federal Republic of Germany and an Information Forum in London in the spring of 1989, Mr Mellor said. The main priority, however, was the establishment of the Western action programme on the human dimension. 'The fact is that unless the central significance of the human dimension is expressly recognised in Vienna, the CSCE process will have no real future.'

Conclusion

Concluding, Mr Mellor underlined the fact that the CSCE process was both comprehensive, in covering almost all aspects of life – including military and political relations, economic co-operation, and the human dimension – which could not be divorced from each other, and specific, in relating to the realities of everyday life. The process was also about people: 'We must enable Europeans to understand and learn about each other; to engage in freer contact with each other; to feel more secure with and to trust each other. Otherwise to talk of a "Common European Home" is mere propaganda. There can be no "Common European Home" with barbed wire in the garden and secret policemen in the cellar.'

HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE SOVIET UNION AND EASTERN EUROPE

Parliamentary statements on the record of the Soviet Union and its allies in implementing the Helsinki agreement are made by Foreign and Commonwealth Office ministers every six months or so. Those detailing events in 1987, delivered by Mr Mellor on 24 July 1987 (*Hansard,* Vol 120, written answers, cols 574-9) and 13 January 1988 (*Hansard,* Vol 125, No 71, written answers, cols 285-9) show that 'overall, compliance with CSCE commitments continued to be unsatisfactory, with persistent breaches of the provisions relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms', though the record varies from country to country.

Soviet Union

With respect to the Soviet Union, it was noted that 1987 had witnessed a number of positive developments, particularly in the first half of the year with the release of a significant number of political prisoners convicted of 'anti-Soviet agitation and propaganda' and 'anti-Soviet slander' – although, in most instances, only after giving certain undertakings, while several who refused to do so continued to serve their sentences. In addition, permission to emigrate was granted to some former political prisoners, including Dr Anatoly Koryagin, who had served six years of a twelve-year sentence for opposition to Soviet abuse of psychiatry; Sergei Khodorovich, who had served four years in a labour camp after arranging charity for political prisoners and their families; and former members of the Moscow Helsinki monitoring group, Tatyana Osipora and Ivan Kopalev.

A formal amnesty, published in June in connection with the 70th anniversary of the October 1917 revolution, however, did not benefit as many political prisoners as some had hoped – nor did it cover inmates of mental hospitals receiving treatment for political reasons. At the end of 1987, several hundreds of people were still known to be detained for political reasons, including the Estonian Helsinki monitor, Mart Niklus. Only a small number of victims of psychiatric abuse were released during the year. In addition, while there were virtually no new criminal prosecutions on political grounds – though Ivan Pankratchenko was given a ten-year sentence in October for 'anti-Soviet agitation and propaganda' – some activists continued to be subjected to an extensive range of harassment. Similarly, the freedom of religion enshrined in the Soviet constitution 'remained a dead letter for many of those wishing to profess their religion without being subject to petty controls and harassment from party and state organs', while many believers, such as the Orthodox priest Vladimir Rusak (sentenced to 12 years' imprisonment for writing a history of the Orthodox church under Soviet rule), remained imprisoned for their faith.

There was a steady increase in the number of Jews (and also Armenians and Germans) allowed to emigrate throughout the year, the statements noted, with some prominent *refuseniks*[1] being allowed to emigrate. Problems and restrictions remained, however, the 'first degree' rule generally restricting applications to those with only the closest family members abroad. As noted by Mr Mellor in his speech, the numbers emigrating remained well below the levels of the late 1970s (see above).

Eastern Europe

In Eastern Europe, violations of the Helsinki principles were similarly widespread. In Bulgaria the practice of religion remained difficult for the non-Orthodox denominations, with the Muslim faith particularly severely affected. Many mosques remained closed, with restrictions on attendance at Muslim services and festivals and prohibitions on certain Muslim practices. Speaking Turkish continued to be banned, as was listening to Turkish radio broadcasts, and there were reports of harassment of ethnic Turks by the Bulgarian militia.

Freedom of religious practice was also strictly limited and regimented by the state in Czechoslovakia, even though the constitution guaranteed religious freedom. Harassment of religious activists, however, appeared to have been limited to temporary detention, surveillance and interrogation. Similarly, harassment of other dissidents, including Charter 77 signatories, continued at a relatively low level, though in May Pavel and Jiri Wonka were sentenced to 21 and 12 months' imprisonment respectively for 'incitement', relating to Pavel Wonka's attempt to stand as a parliamentary candidate.

Of the other Eastern European countries, Hungary continued to be the most open, 'with a fairly good, but not flawless, record of compliance with CSCE commitments'. Freedom of expression remained restricted, however, with action taken against vocal

[1]Jewish people who have had their application to emigrate turned down.

critics and minor *samizdat* publications.[1] The improvement in Poland's human rights record, initiated by the clemency law of July 1986 and the subsequent release of political prisoners, was sustained in 1987. No custodial sentences for political offences were imposed, although the distribution of illegal literature attracted heavy fines and confiscation of property. Trade union pluralism remained illegal (with Solidarity banned), and freedom of association was seriously circumscribed. Religious tolerance remained high, though limits continued to be placed on religious publications. The performance of the German Democratic Republic, despite some positive developments with respect to religious freedom, remained poor, and the order to shoot those attempting to flee the country continued in force (though there were few reported incidents of shots being fired). By far the worst record was that of Romania, which continued 'to deteriorate in all aspect of human rights'. There was no freedom to express dissenting views, the press continued to be heavily circumscribed, and religious toleration existed only in so far as it did not conflict with official policy. In Mr Mellor's words, 'Romania continued to pay lip service to promoting the effective exercise of human rights and freedoms, while repressing the population through the maintenance of a climate of fear'.

European Community Aid

The effectiveness of the European Community's aid programmes and ways by which they could be improved were the subjects of a speech by the Minister for Overseas Development, Mr Christopher Patten, to the Royal Commonwealth Society on 3 May.

Background

The Community's principal aid programmes are the Lomé Convention, food aid, the Asia and Latin America programmes, and the Mediterranean Financial Protocols. Out of the £11,500 million spent by the 12 member states of the Community on bilateral and multilateral aid in 1986, some £1,400 million was devoted to these programmes, Britain's contribution being £223 million.

Britain played a key role in bringing the Lomé relationship into being, helping to transform the earlier Yaoundé Conventions into a comprehensive agreement governing the European Community's aid and trade relations with developing countries in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific (the ACP countries). There are now 66 ACP states, over half of them members of the Commonwealth. The present Convention, the third, was signed in December 1984 (see pp 441-3, 1984) and came into force in May 1986 (transitional arrangements having applied since the expiry of the second Convention in February 1985).[1] The Convention, which runs from 1986 to 1990, provides for aid totalling over £5,000 million and a further £770 million in the form of loans from the European Investment Bank; it also covers industrial and agricultural co-operation, a scheme (STABEX) designed to help stabilise the agricultural commodity export earnings of the ACP countries, and assistance for ACP mineral producers whose production and income suffer from temporary disruptions beyond their control. In addition, it offers duty-free access to the Community for ACP exports of all industrial and most agricultural goods. Emphasis is placed on food production and on measures to prevent desertification. All British dependent territories (with the exception of Bermuda, Gibraltar and Hong Kong), together with the overseas territories of other Community members, are formally associated with the Community under provisions parallel to those of the Lomé Convention and with similar aid and trade benefits.

Britain also played a leading part in the Community's adoption of an aid programme for developing countries in Asia and Latin America not covered by the Lomé Convention or having any other special relationship with the Community. This has grown steadily since its inception in 1976, with over £1,000 million having been committed and about £600 million spent; the programme was worth some £117 million in 1987. Priority is given to rural development and agricultural production in the poorest countries, most of which are in Asia. Major recipients have included India, Bangladesh, Thailand and Indonesia.

Co-operation and association agreements with individual countries and regional groupings also include provision for development aid. In 1987, for instance, new five-year financial protocols were agreed with most of the Community's Mediterranean partners, which will provide for £430 million of Community aid and £1,120 million in loans from the European Investment Bank.

In 1987 the Community spent some £282 million on food aid, of which Britain's share was about £60 million, much of which went to Africa. In the same year Britain reached agreement with its partners on far-reaching reforms of the food aid programme designed to make it an effective instrument of development policy rather than a short-term expedient for the disposal of unwanted food surpluses.

LOMÉ CONVENTION

Mr Patten described Lomé as an admirable reflection of the spirit of co-operation that could be achieved between the Community's members and developing countries. But it could not remove all constraints on economic development: reform of world agricultural trade, for example, had to be a top priority on the international agenda, for the damaging effects of protection and subsidies in most industrial countries on world food prices and Third World producers were all too clear.

Nevertheless, Lomé was a form of co-operation valued by both sides. For the European Community,

[1]Illegal underground publications.

[1]For further information see *The Third Lomé Convention*, COI No 38/85.

it represented a concrete expression of its commitment under the Treaty of Rome to promote world trade, development and peace, and it gave a European dimension to member states' bilateral relations with the ACP countries. It also offered European business excellent opportunities to participate in development. For the ACP states it had provided tariff and quota free access to the Community market for all their industrial exports and most of their agricultural exports; they also received assurances of substantial long-term aid commitments.

Trade Provisions

In negotiating a new Lomé IV Convention, Mr Patten said that it was necessary to look for further improvements to the trade regime and seek agreement on ways to make aid more effective. Trade was particularly important, for the long-term economic health of the ACP states depended on their ability to increase trade: most of their foreign exchange came from export earnings rather than aid flows. This was why Britain had pressed hard for further trade improvements for ACP states at the last Lomé negotiations and would continue to do so in the forthcoming negotiations.

There were constraints. First, the ACP states already enjoyed probably the most liberal trading regime on offer to any group of developing countries. Second, some of the agricultural products still subject to restrictions competed directly with member states' agricultural produce. Third, parallel negotiations were taking place in the GATT Uruguay Round (see pp 328-9, 1986) on multilateral liberalisation of trade, where the Community, with full British support, sought the liberalisation of trade on a global basis in areas of crucial importance to the poorer countries, including tropical products and agriculture more generally.[1] Progress here would have to be taken into account in the Lomé negotiations.

Despite this, the Community could, and had to, search for further improvements to offer ACP countries on trade. Mr Patten saw three areas of importance in the future Lomé trade regime. First, the special trade arrangements for sugar, bananas, beef and rum had to be maintained. Second, the Community should respond positively to long-standing demands by the ACP states for some modest improvements in access for sugar and rice. Third, the Community should examine closely the possibilities of removing the few remaining restrictions on agricultural products not covered by the Community's Common Agricultural Policy. Britain would work hard to achieve this. It was also important to maintain the right economic climate for private investment in ACP states.

Aid Provisions

Turning to the Convention's aid provisions, Mr Patten said that for aid to be truly effective, donor agencies had to collaborate with each other and with the recipient authorities to ensure that aid was appropriate to the needs of recipients and especially that it would achieve reform and growth in the poorest countries in Africa. Looking at the European Development Fund (EDF; see p 260, 1987), Mr Patten saw four main opportunities: in individual, national programmes; in regional aid; in STABEX; and in considering how best to support structural adjustment.

National Programmes

Lomé III had brought considerable advances in establishing more effective national programmes, though in some cases the choice of aid operations had been rather rigid. In many countries a quicker and more certain impact could be achieved with Lomé III programmes by greater use of fast-disbursing aid. There was scope too for improving the design and appraisal of EDF operations, and it was important to ensure that the benefits of aid were enduring.

Regional Aid

There was further to go in the area of regional aid, Mr Patten continued. Some regional organisations like the Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference (see pp 46-7) enjoyed the unequivocal support of their member governments, and regional aid was proving effective in that area, especially in rehabilitating transport links. But much EDF regional aid had been beset by problems: 'slow to spend and uncertain in its effect'. Here especially, more rigorous appraisal could lead to sounder investment.

STABEX

STABEX was not working. There was no evidence that it had had a significant impact on the economic development of those ACP states dependent on commodities. The export earnings problems faced by these countries were structural, not cyclical, and many would face increasingly severe balance of payments difficulties because of slow growth in export earnings unless they could restructure the production and export orientation of their economies. Yet under Lomé III, STABEX was making nearly £700 million of aid funds available. The question was how to make STABEX more effective, and the answer lay in bringing it up to date with the developments in other EDF aid. STABEX transfers should support the difficult decisions governments faced in restructuring their economies and in changing policies to encourage diversification. The 'perverse effects' of the present system – the bias against diversification and the penalties for those countries which devalued their currencies to make their exports more competitive – should be removed.

Structural Adjustment

Britain agreed with the European Commission's emphasis that structural adjustment should be assisted, but not through some separate facility. Supporting adjustment should be at the centre of the Community's aid strategy. For many ACP countries adjustment was vital to restore the basis for long-term growth. Twenty African countries were now embarked on adjustment with the support of the international community, and had given it priority. This should be recognised in deploying Community aid. More resources had to be concen-

[1]For further information, see *Britain and the International Trading System*, COI No 289/87.

trated on disbursing aid quickly to support economic reform, and some of the techniques now being employed under the special programme for poor, heavily indebted African countries[1] showed the way in which the Community's instruments could be refined and made more flexible for the future. Analysing the key reforms needed for adjustment financing was not easy: these had to be tailored to the countries' specific circumstances. Donors needed to share the experience they had gained and closer operational links between the World Bank and the EDF should be developed. There was no conflict between structural adjustment and long-term development; for many ACP states structural adjustment was vital to restore economic growth.

OTHER PROGRAMMES

Discussing the Community's Food Aid Programme, which was second only to that of the United States in terms of size, with a total expenditure of about £282 million in 1987, Mr Patten observed that clear evidence was required that the new Food Aid Regulation agreed by the Council of Ministers in 1986 (see p 15, 1987) was more responsive to the real needs of developing countries. The old attitude that food aid was somehow different and separate from other forms of development assistance had to be broken down so that food aid did not run counter to other aid schemes to help recipients achieve food security through their own efforts.

Regarding the Asia and Latin America aid programme for developing countries ineligible to join the Lomé Convention, it was important to ensure that aid was distributed fairly, based on the fundamental considerations of relative poverty and the size of the population. For both the Asia and Latin America programmes and the Mediterranean Financial Protocols, which made money available to developing countries in the Mediterranean and Middle East, a full and open appraisal of what had been achieved so far was required, in order to make the best use of scarce Community aid resources.

Afghanistan

A peace settlement for Afghanistan, formally guaranteed by the Soviet Union and the United States, was signed by the Governments of Afghanistan and Pakistan in Geneva on 14 April. The settlement covers mutual relations, the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan and the return of Afghan refugees. In accordance with the terms of the settlement, the Soviet Union began to withdraw troops from Afghanistan on 15 May. Britain has welcomed the agreement and expressed the hope that it will lead to the establishment of 'a truly representative government' in Afghanistan. Britain has also pledged £10 million for the relief and resettlement of refugees in 1988-89.

[1]Under this programme, loans are awarded at low rates of interest to countries making agreed adjustments.

Background

In April 1978 a Marxist government was installed in Afghanistan in a coup organised by the People's Democratic Party. A Treaty of Friendship, Good Neighbourliness and Co-operation was signed by the new regime and the Soviet Union in December 1978. By the end of 1979, however, two more coups (in September and December 1979) had taken place during which the previous leaders were overthrown and executed. During the December coup, 8,000 Soviet airborne troops arrived in or around Afghanistan's capital, Kabul, and by the spring of 1980 some 85,000 Soviet troops had occupied the country. At the time of the Geneva agreement, there were around 110-115,000 Soviet troops still in Afghanistan. Some 5 million Afghans out of a total population of 11 million people have had to flee from their country to camps, mostly in Pakistan, administered by the Government of Pakistan and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). There are 1·8 million refugees in Iran.

Widespread opposition to the central authority in Kabul began after the coup of April 1978, but expanded rapidly following the Soviet invasion of December 1979. The resistance (Mujahideen) is engaged in large-scale insurgency in all parts of the country and comprises several groups, all Islamic, some of which have their headquarters in Peshawar, Pakistan.

International Reactions

The Soviet intervention was condemned by Britain as an unprovoked act of aggression against an independent country and an unprecedented development in the history of post-war Soviet expansion. At the United Nations, Britain has supported successive General Assembly resolutions calling for the immediate, unconditional and total withdrawal of foreign troops from Afghanistan in order to allow its people to choose their own government and their own economic, social and political system. The most recent General Assembly resolution, passed in November 1987, received 123 votes with 19 against and 12 abstentions (see pp 404-5, 1987). Member states of the European Community and the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation have also repeatedly condemned the Soviet action (see pp 11 and 406, 1987, and p 13). Members of the Islamic Conference have called unanimously for the withdrawal of Soviet troops and have suspended Afghanistan's membership of the conference.

Peace Negotiations

Since the invasion the UN General Assembly's resolutions on Afghanistan have called for a negotiated settlement based on four principles: the immediate withdrawal of 'foreign' (that is, Soviet) troops; self-determination for the Afghan people; the restoration of the independent and non-aligned status of Afghanistan; and the return of refugees. Since 1982, the UN special representative, Sr Diego Cordovez, has been conducting 'indirect' (that is, not face-to-face) negotiations in Geneva with Afghanistan and Pakistan, and these resulted in 1985 in an understanding on a four-point plan for a political settlement involving a bilateral agreement on non-inter-

ference and non-intervention; declarations on international guarantees (that is, by the Soviet Union and the United States); a bilateral agreement on the voluntary return of refugees; and arrangements covering the withdrawal of foreign troops.

The Geneva negotiations continued, the main issue during 1987 being the timetable of the withdrawal of Soviet troops. In January 1988, the Soviet Union stated that it wanted to withdraw its forces from Afghanistan by the end of 1988, and in February the Soviet leader, Mr Mikhail Gorbachev, announced the Soviet Union's readiness to withdraw its forces according to a fixed timetable not exceeding ten months, starting on 15 May. The withdrawal, he said, would however be dependent on the formal conclusion of an agreement in the Geneva negotiations. In March it was announced that the Afghan delegation at the indirect peace talks had agreed that the Soviet forces would leave Afghanistan over a nine-month period, with half pulling out in the first three months. Agreement on the other elements of the four-point plan was also near to completion. On 7 April Mr Gorbachev and President Najibullah of Afghanistan met in Tashkent and announced that they believed there were no further obstacles to concluding the peace agreements. On 8 April the UN special representative announced that the Geneva accords would be ready for signing by 14 April.

Afghanistan Agreements

The Geneva settlement comprises separate agreements between the Governments of Afghanistan and Pakistan on inter-relationships (including provisions for the withdrawal of Soviet troops), mutual relations, and the voluntary return of Afghan refugees; and it is guaranteed in a separate instrument signed by the Soviet Union and the United States, who are also signatories to the agreement on inter-relationships. The Afghan resistance has rejected the Geneva accords.

Agreement on Inter-relationships

Under the terms of this instrument, the Governments of Afghanistan and Pakistan agreed that the political settlement should be based on the following principles: that each would refrain from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of the other; that they would settle their international disputes by peaceful means; that they would not intervene in each other's domestic affairs; that they would co-operate with one another; and that they would respect the principles of equal rights and self-determination of peoples and of sovereign equality of states. They further affirmed the right of the Afghan refugees to return to their homeland in a voluntary and unimpeded manner.

The instrument also contains provisions regarding the timetable for the withdrawal of Soviet forces and the return of refugees. There is to be a phased withdrawal of Soviet troops, beginning on 15 May. One-half of the troops are to be withdrawn by 15 August and the withdrawal of all troops is to be completed within nine months. From 15 May there is to be no interference or intervention of any kind by either government in the other's affairs; the international guarantees will be in operation, and the voluntary return of the refugees to Afghanistan will begin. Representatives of both governments will meet whenever required to consider alleged violations of the settlement and to work out prompt and mutually satisfactory solutions to questions that might arise over the implementation of its terms. A representative of the UN Secretary-General will help organise such meetings and generally lend his good offices to the two parties.

Agreement on Mutual Relations

This instrument establishes the principles of non-intervention and non-interference in others' affairs as the basis of relations between the two countries. Among other things, each government agreed to respect the other country's sovereignty, political independence, territorial integrity, national unity, security, and non-alignment; to refrain from the use or threat of force against the other; to ensure that its territory was not used to violate the other's sovereignty, independence, territorial integrity or national unity; to refrain from any form of overt or covert intervention and interference against the other; and to refrain from the encouragement or support of rebellious or secessionist activities against the other.

Agreement on the Voluntary Return of Refugees

The two governments agreed that voluntary and unimpeded repatriation was the best solution to the problem of Afghan refugees at present in Pakistan. The Afghanistan Government undertook to ensure that all refugees were allowed to return in freedom and to enjoy the free choice of domicile and freedom of movement within Afghanistan. They are to enjoy the right to work, to adequate living conditions, to share in the welfare of the state and to participate on an equal basis in Afghanistan's civic affairs. All returnees are to enjoy the same rights and privileges, including freedom of religion, as any other citizens. The Government of Pakistan undertook to facilitate the voluntary, orderly and peaceful repatriation of Afghan refugees within its territories and to provide all the assistance it could to the process of repatriation. Mixed commissions are to be established to organise, co-ordinate and supervise the operations: these will determine frontier crossing points and set up necessary transit centres. The UNHCR is to co-operate and provide assistance.

United Nations Inspection

Under a separate memorandum of understanding, terms were laid down governing the monitoring of the settlement's implementation by the United Nations. The Secretary-General's deputy representative, a senior military officer, is to be stationed in the area in command of two headquarters units, one in Kabul and the other in Islamabad. Inspections may be conducted at the request of the two signatories, in case of a complaint regarding violation of the settlement's terms, or on the initiative of the Secretary-General's deputy representative.

British Statement

In a statement issued on 14 April, the Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary, Sir Geoffrey Howe, welcomed the Geneva agreement and the Soviet Union's decision to withdraw its forces from

Afghanistan. Eight years of Soviet occupation, he pointed out, had left Afghanistan devastated. The help of the international community would be required to repair the damage and make possible the early, voluntary return of the refugees in safety and honour, and on this question Britain was in close agreement with other European Community countries, the United States, the UN Secretary-General, UN agencies and voluntary organisations.

Since 1979 Britain had provided £50 million to support Afghan refugees, Sir Geoffrey continued. Britain now pledged a further £10 million for the relief and resettlement of refugees for 1988-89, 'provided co-ordinated international arrangements are put in place'. He hoped that the Soviet withdrawal and the return of the refugees would pave the way for the Afghan people as a whole to reach a comprehensive internal political settlement, a settlement that would 'include the resistance [the Mujahideen] and lead to the election of a truly representative government by a genuine act of self-determination'. He considered that this could be achieved by the establishment of a transitional government, whose independence could not be contested.

The Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary also called for all concerned to respect Afghanistan's non-alignment and independence, and urged the Soviet Union to implement its decision fully. Finally, Sir Geoffrey hoped that 'in recognising the error of their original intervention in Afghanistan, the Soviet authorities [would] be guided by a comparable wisdom and realism elsewhere in the world'.

European Community Statement

In a statement issued on 14 April, the twelve members of the European Community welcomed the successful conclusion of the Geneva talks and expressed the view that to permit the restoration of genuine peace, the withdrawal of Soviet troops and the unimpeded return of refugees had to be accompanied by an overall political settlement. In this connection, participation by the Afghan resistance in a process of self-determination and in the installation of a truly representative government in Kabul was indispensible. The Twelve offered to assist with the return of refugees and with the reconstruction of an independent and non-aligned Afghanistan.

UN Secretary-General's Statement

The UN Secretary-General, Sr Javier Perez de Cuellar, described the accords of 14 April as a 'major stride in the effort to bring peace to Afghanistan' and said that they demonstrated the UN's capacity to attain positive results on the most complex issues when backed by the political will of its member states. He said the challenge facing the people of Afghanistan was great, but it must be met by them alone. The agreements laid the basis for the exercise by all Afghans of their right to self-determination.

Shorter Note

EUROPEAN FIGHTER AIRCRAFT

An agreement to develop and produce the European Fighter Aircraft was signed by Britain, Italy, Spain and the Federal Republic of Germany on 16 May. Britain's decision to join the programme was announced by the Secretary of State for Defence, Mr George Younger, on 25 April.

Speaking to the House of Commons, Mr Younger said that in 1985 the Government had agreed with the Governments of Italy, Spain and the Federal Republic of Germany on the essential characteristics of a European Fighter Aircraft (EFA) and on arrangements to explore the technical content and cost of a programme to develop it. This project definition had now been completed successfully and the four nations had to decide whether to embark on full development.

Mr Younger explained that some 250 aircraft would be needed by the Royal Air Force to replace its air-defence Phantoms and ground-attack Jaguars and to complement the Tornado F3 air-defence aircraft. An agile aircraft with the characteristics of the EFA was essential to maintain effective air defences beyond the late 1990s; it would also have a secondary ground-attack capability.

After an exhaustive investigation, the Government was in no doubt that the EFA was the best and most cost-effective option to fulfil this essential military role. The prime contractors would be the Eurofighter consortium for the aircraft as a whole and the Eurojet consortium for its EJ200 engine. British Aerospace and Rolls-Royce would play key roles in the respective consortia. Britain would have a 33 per cent work share in the development of the aircraft overall, which would open up major opportunities for British industry, giving direct long-term employment to an estimated 3,000 to 4,000 people for the development task alone. The cost of full development to Britain would be about £1,700 million, which would be accommodated within planned defence expenditure. The total cost of the programme would probably be between £6,000 and £7,000 million.

Mr Younger described the EFA programme as being of vital importance to Britain's aerospace industry. He said that although the technology involved was very advanced, it was based on concepts proven during the project's investigation. The Government had insisted that the prime contractors accept 'a very tight commercial package' and the contracts that were being drawn up would place the technological and financial risks firmly on the industrial consortia rather than governments. All subcontracts for the aircraft's equipment would be subject to competition.

Source: *Hansard*, Vol 132, No 137, cols 21-2.

Share Ownership

The rise in share ownership in Britain continued during 1987 and by early 1988 some 9 million people, 20·5 per cent of the adult population, owned shares, according to a survey for the Treasury and the Stock Exchange.

The survey was carried out by National Opinion Poll Market Research Ltd between 20 January and 15 February, when interviews were held with some 7,200 people who were selected as a representative sample of adults in Great Britain. Details of the survey were given in an article in the April edition of the Treasury's *Economic Progress Report*.[1]

Main Findings and Trends

The definition of share ownership used for the survey was taken as all shareholdings including those held through personal equity plans and employee share schemes, but excluding unit trusts and building society share accounts. The survey found that at the beginning of 1988 some 20·5 per cent of the adult population held shares, compared with about 19·5 per cent at the beginning of 1987 (see p 138, 1987) and 7 per cent in 1979. Some 6 million people, 13 per cent of adults, held shares in privatised companies, and 6 per cent of adults held shares only in privatised companies. Some 3 per cent of adults held shares in the company for which they worked.

About half of shareholders own shares in only one company, and they are mainly first-time shareholders attracted by the Government's privatisation programme, while about a fifth own shares in four or more companies. The article says that one of the main objectives of the Government's wider share ownership policy is to encourage these newcomers to take a continuing interest in the equity market and to acquire shares in a greater number of companies. The survey found that the pattern of share ownership by income group, region, socio-economic group and age was similar to that of a year earlier, with, for example, share ownership being most concentrated in the professional and managerial groups where one-third of adults owned shares. Share ownership by region ranges from 25 per cent in the South East to 12 per cent in Scotland.

Other evidence on changes in share ownership indicates that the substantial falls in the value of company shares which occurred on major stock markets in October 1987 (see pp 368-9, 1987) had little impact on the level of share ownership. Most of the growth in share ownership since 1979 can be attributed to the Government's privatisation programme, favourable tax treatment of employee share schemes and the introduction of personal equity plans.

Privatisation

The article says that privatisation has been the major factor behind the increase in share ownership since 1979. About 2 million people bought shares in British Telecom when it was privatised in 1984 (see pp 453-4, 1984). Most of the shareholdings in privatised companies are accounted for by British Telcom and the flotations of the Trustee Savings Bank (in September 1986 – see p 365, 1986) and of British Gas, which attracted over 4·5 million applications when shares were sold in November 1986 (see pp 25-7, 1987). Although after privatisation some of these shareholders would have sold their shares, the article says that there has been no noticeable decline in the number of shareholders in the major privatised companies in the last year, with an average of about two-thirds of initial shareholders retaining their shares.

Employee Share Schemes

According to the survey, about 1·5 million people own shares in the company for which they work. The number is growing and government policies have encouraged employee share ownership, for example through tax reliefs which have been provided or extended in all but one of the last nine Budgets. However, the statistics do not distinguish between the different ways in which employee shareholdings have been acquired and exclude other employee share interests, such as share options. The Inland Revenue estimates that over 1·5 million employees have benefited under employee share and share option schemes approved for tax relief purposes in the past nine years. When share options granted under approved schemes are taken into account, it is estimated that about 1·75 million employees (representing some 10 per cent of employment in the corporate sector) are likely to have held shares or unexercised share options at the time of the survey. The Government has also encouraged employee share ownership through privatisation, where preferential treatment of applications has led nearly 500,000 employees (about 90 per cent of those eligible) to become shareholders.

[1]Available unpriced from *Economic Progress Report* distributed by COI, Hercules Road, London SE1 7DU. The survey, *Share Ownership – 1988*, is available from HM Treasury Committee Section, Treasury Chambers, Parliament Street, London SW1P 3AG. £20.

Personal Equity Plans

Personal equity plans, which are designed to encourage smaller savers, enable adults to invest up to £3,000 a year in shares, with reinvested dividends and realised capital gains being free of tax, providing the investment is kept for a minimum of between one and two years. They were announced in the 1986 Budget (see p 125, 1986) and introduced in January 1987. According to the Inland Revenue, over 266,000 plans were taken out in 1987, with £466 million invested. The article says that personal equity plans appear to be making 'a real contribution to both widening and deepening share ownership', with about 40 per cent of plan holders having no other shares, although it says that the small number of plan holders interviewed means that the statistics should be treated with caution.

Unit Trusts

Unit trusts enable investors in securities to spread their risks and obtain the benefit of skilled management. For the purposes of the survey, unit trust holders were not counted as shareholders, but answers to a question suggested that around 2·5 million people, nearly 6 per cent of the adult population, had holdings in unit trusts, of whom about 60 per cent also owned shares directly.

International Comparisons

Increases in share ownership have occurred in a number of countries, often as a result of privatisation, and Britain's level of shareholding (including unit trusts) of 23 per cent is exceeded only by the United States, where about 47 million people (a quarter of the adult population) own shares or holdings in mutual funds (equivalent to unit trusts). Statistics for other major countries show a level of shareholding (including holdings in mutual funds) of 21 per cent in France (14 per cent if mutual funds are excluded) and 9 per cent in Japan and the Federal Republic of Germany.

Industrial Relations

Features of industrial relations in 1987 included greater flexibility in working methods and organisation, a move away from centralised bargaining and a questioning in some areas of the basis of trade union recognition, according to the annual report of the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS). Recent statistics indicate that the decline in trade union membership and in the number of trade unions continued in 1986.

ACAS REPORT

Industrial relations in 1987 were subject to considerable change, according to the annual report of ACAS, published on 4 May,[1] which examines some of the major developments.

[1] *Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service Annual Report 1987.* Available unpriced from ACAS, 11-12 St James's Square, London SW1Y 4LA. ISBN 0 906073 35 9.

Pattern of Employment

Many sectors of the economy experienced growth, with increased employment, especially in the service sectors in the Midlands and southern England, while in some areas (particularly the South East) there were indications of general labour shortages. Although unemployment remained relatively high in some areas, for example in the North and in the inner cities, more buoyant economic conditions were reflected in a fall in unemployment to below 10 per cent of the workforce.[1] The growth of new employment reflected not only structural changes but also the changing pattern of employment, with over one-third of people no longer working full-time as permanent employees, but with many jobs being filled by women working part-time, and with self-employment continuing to grow.

Industrial Disputes

In 1987 there were about 900 stoppages arising from industrial action officially recorded by the Department of Employment, involving over 850,000 workers and leading to the loss of 3·5 million working days, somewhat higher than in 1986. Most of the increase arose in the public sector (with disputes in a number of areas including education and the Civil Service), but the report notes that 'the reluctance to contemplate industrial action which has been a feature of much private sector employment in recent years continued'.

The report refers to the effects of the Trade Union Act 1984 (see pp 436-8, 1983, and 312-13, 1984), in particular the requirement for secret ballots before employees are asked to take part in official industrial action. Although they were already used in some sectors, the report says that there is 'little doubt that they are becoming an increasingly common feature of the negotiating scene'. In 1987, 280 of these ballots were held, of which 251 resulted in a majority in favour of the trade union position. Turnouts were often high, frequently exceeding 75 per cent. Further provisions on ballots and on other aspects of the rights of trade union members are contained in the Employment Bill (see pp 377-8, 1987).

Flexible Working Arrangements

The introduction of new technology and related organisational changes, with the support of employees and their trade unions, continued in 1987, together with broader moves towards flexible working arrangements. For example, many managers were seeking to move towards arrangements on pay and conditions which related more closely to local labour and product market conditions. This resulted in discussions of the functions of long-standing national bargaining machinery. In a number of cases such arrangements were ended: for school teachers in England and Wales where the statutory Burnham machinery for deciding teachers' pay was abolished; in the London clearing banks, where industry-wide discussions were abandoned in favour of agreements in each company; in the Civil Service, where national negotiations on pay were effectively abandoned as some trade unions reached separate agreements covering par-

[1] On 14 April unemployment in Britain on a seasonally adjusted basis (excluding school-leavers) was 8·8 per cent.

ticular groups; and in national newspapers, where following moves from Fleet Street (the traditional centre of the industry) by most producers to new 'high technology' sites in east London, the Newspaper Publishers Association gave notice of the termination of its national printing agreement. Greater autonomy over terms and conditions of employment occurred in some other industry-wide arrangements, and a number of larger companies and organisations previously party to industry-wide or company-wide negotiations also adopted more devolved arrangements.

Payment Systems

An ACAS survey of nearly 600 organisations using its services, which is expected to be published later in 1988, found widespread experiment and change in payment systems and working arrangements. One-fifth of the companies had introduced payment systems during the previous three years which gave special rewards to employees acquiring additional skills, and a similar proportion was considering such schemes. Nearly one-quarter of the companies had introduced merit pay during this period and about one-fifth were considering such schemes or extension of merit pay.

An area where significant changes have taken place in recent years is the arrangement for linking part of remuneration with company profits, with the aim of establishing a closer relationship between individual employees and the performance of the organisations for which they work. Over one-quarter of companies in the survey had introduced forms of profit-sharing or share options for employees in the past three years and many more were considering such schemes.

Following the introduction of the Wages Act 1986 (see pp 90-1, 1986), many employers instituted cashless pay arrangements for new employees, usually without problems.

Other Forms of Flexibility

Widespread discussion of other forms of flexibility occurred in 1987, according to the report, with the continuing increase in part-time employment and in types of temporary work. Two-fifths of managers in the survey said that the number of temporary workers in their organisation had grown in the past three years. More organisations were reported to be making greater use of outside contractors in some of their operations. Fixed-term employment contracts, often for short periods, were becoming more common, although at present they are used in only a small minority of larger organisations.

New forms of flexibility in crafts and skills were occurring, with process and semi-skilled employees increasingly being trained, especially in large companies, to undertake work formerly restricted to skilled employees and with skilled employees from one speciality performing tasks previously reserved for others. In many sectors, as new technology has been introduced, there have been widespread moves to relax divisions between manual, technical and clerical skills. Flexibility in hours also increased, and there was growing interest in moving to working arrangements on an 'annualised hours' basis, which has been adopted in a number of companies.

Trade Unions

Changes in the economic structure and the pattern of employment affected trade union membership, which has declined to some two-fifths of employees, compared with 55 per cent in 1979. Membership rates varied, remaining high in the public sector and in older manufacturing industries, but with recruitment proving more difficult in newer companies and industries, especially in the private sector. In some areas trade unions faced difficulty in achieving recognition by employers, particularly where there was a relatively weak membership base, and the report says that there is 'a growing likelihood that where employers agree recognition it will be with only a single union'.

Some examples occurred in 1987 of de-unionisation and de-recognition of trade unions, for example where employers had persuaded groups of senior managers, whose pay and conditions were formerly agreed through collective machinery, to accept individual contracts. Although such moves remained the exception, it was apparent that many managers were re-examining their relations with trade unions. Where industry-wide and company-wide bargaining continues, it now often provides a framework emphasising greater opportunities for managers and employees to reach local agreements suited to their particular circumstances. There were indications that the issues subject to collective bargaining may be changing, with management increasingly seeking 'enabling' agreements, or the acquiescence of employees, rather than bargaining about the detail of job changes and the application of new payment systems.

The Work of ACAS

The functions of ACAS are to provide facilities for conciliation, mediation and arbitration, and to promote the improvement of industrial relations. During 1987 it received 1,302 requests for collective conciliation and maintained private and informal contact in a further 500 disputes without becoming involved in conciliation. In 83 per cent of completed conciliation cases no industrial action took place.

Demand for ACAS advisory services continued at a high level throughout 1987, with its in-depth advisory caseload (including that of its Work Research Unit) reaching a record 980 cases, although the number of advisory visits made by its specialist staff fell to 8,600.

There was a substantial fall in the number of individual conciliation cases received from 51,400 in 1986 to 40,800 in 1987, reflecting a decline in complaints of unfair dismissal (which form 85 per cent of individual conciliation cases). The decrease was mainly as a result of the lengthening to two years of the qualifying period of employment for protection against unfair dismissal, which came into effect in 1985.

TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP

Membership of trade unions at the end of 1986 was 10·5 million, 2·6 per cent lower than at the end of 1985 and 20·7 per cent less than the peak of 13·3 million in 1979, according to an article in the May edition of the *Employment Gazette*.[1] Changes in

[1]Available from HMSO, £3·40. ISBN 0 11 728267 7.

Trade Union Membership

	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Number of unions at end of year	473	481	462	453	438	414	408	394	375	370	335
Membership at end of year (thousand)	12,386	12,846	13,112	13,289	12,947	12,106	11,593	11,236	10,994	10,821	10,539
% change in membership since previous year	+3·0	+3·7	+2·1	+1·3	−2·6	−6·5	−4·2	−3·1	−2·2	−1·6	−2·6

membership and in the number of trade unions are given in the table, which indicates a substantial downward trend from 1981 to 1983, followed by a continued but more gradual decline up to and including 1986.

The article says that trade union membership rose almost continuously during the twentieth century, apart from the 1920s, until 1979, although subsequently it has fallen in each year. Most of the loss in 1986 resulted from falls in membership in the production industries, although these were not on the same scale as in 1985.

The number of unions declined by 35 during 1986 to 335 at the end of the year, reflecting a continuing process of mergers and transfers. More than half of unions are small, consisting of under 1,000 members and together accounting for only 0·4 per cent of trade union membership. The 24 unions with 100,000 or more members constitute 80·8 per cent of union membership, while the eight largest, all with over 350,000 members each, account for 53·2 per cent of total membership. Of these, according to the annual report of the Certification Officer for 1987,[1] the five largest are the Transport and General Workers Union (1·4 million members in 1986), the Amalgamated Engineering Union (858,000), the General, Municipal, Boilermakers and Allied Trades Union (814,000), the National and Local Government Officers' Association (750,000) and the National Union of Public Employees (658,000).

Queen's Awards

The Queen's Awards for Export and Technology for 1988 were announced on 21 April. There were 102 winners of awards for export achievement and 43 for technological achievement. The recipients represent a wide spread of industrial and commercial activity and size of company; Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and all the regions of England are represented.

The Queen's Awards for Export and Technology are published annually on 21 April (the Queen's birthday). They are made on the advice of a committee consisting of representatives of industry and commerce as well as civil servants and trade unionists. Instituted in 1965 and revised in 1975 (see pp 443-4, 1975), the awards can be made to British companies and to subsidiaries of overseas companies. Recipients hold their awards for five years and may display the awards emblem on their goods, advertising and letterheads, and on articles for use by employees. A current holder of an award may apply for consideration in subsequent years in respect of a new achievement beyond that recognised by the previous award.

The 145 winners of awards in 1988 were chosen from 985 applicants. A record number of 12 companies (or units of the same company) have been granted both awards. This year nine awards for export achievement and three awards for technological achievement were made to units holding awards granted during the past five years.

Export Achievement

Export achievement awards are made for 'a substantial and sustained increase in export earnings to a level which is outstanding for the products or services concerned and for the size of the applicant unit's operations'.

Technological Achievement

Awards in this category are made for a 'significant advance, leading to increased efficiency, in the application of technology to a production or development process in British industry, or the production for sale of goods which incorporate new and advanced technological qualities'.

Winners

The winners of the awards are listed below. Winners of awards for technological achievement are listed together with the development for which they received an award. Further information can be obtained from The Queen's Awards Office, Dean Bradley House, 52 Horseferry Road, London SW1P 2AG.

[1] Available unpriced from the Certification Office for Trade Unions and Employers' Associations, 15-17 Ormond Yard, Duke of York Street, London SW1Y 6JT. Statistics in the article are based on data supplied to the Department of Employment by the Certification Officer (supplemented by information from the Department of Economic Development for Northern Ireland and some individual trade unions), although there are certain differences in usage, particularly on the number of unions.

Export Achievement Awards

ABI Caravans
AFE Displays
Abbeycraft Furniture
BCB International
Edward Baker
Baring Securities
Bemac Engineering
Bennett Opie
Berghaus
Biwater Pipes & Castings
Black Clawson International
The Hatfield Unit of the Civil Aircraft Division of British Aerospace
The On Line Inspection Centre of British Gas
Brush Electrical Machines
Burleigh Marine International
Sericol Group, Division of Burmah Oil Trading
Cape Contracts International
Casburt Pharmaceutical Equipment
Chemical Design
Churchill Tableware
City Technology
Cleveland Potash
The Vascutek Division of Coats Viyella Medical
Cobden Chadwick
Colloids
Consort Hotels
Cotswold Pig Development Company
Davy McKee (Stockton)
Dearden Davies Associates
Derwent Publications
Donner Underwriting Agencies
Dow Corning
F Drake & Company of Golcar
Durmech Engineering
Dynapert Precima
Eclipse Blinds
Enterprise Computer Services
Eurocast Bar
Euro-Magnetic Products
Europa Manor Engineers
Fastnet Fish (Exports)
Filtronic Components
Flight Equipment & Engineering
Forest & Sawmill Equipments (Engineers) trading as Forestor
The Great Scottish and Western Railway Company
H P Bulmer Pectin
Hawker Siddeley Power Engineering
Hepworth & Grandage
Herga Electric
Hilden Manufacturing Co
John Hine
Homark Associates
Hunting Precision Components
Husky Computers
The Doncasters Blaenavon Division of INCO Engineered Products
Ingersoll-Rand Company
JCB Sales
I&M Kindler
The Lafferty Group
Lilliput Lane
The Electric Actuator Division of Lucas Aerospace
Macallan-Glenlivet
Malvern Instruments
Marine Projects (Plymouth)
The Winnersh Site of Mars Electronics International
Monocon Refractories
Northern Engineering Industries
Oxford Medical
Pitney Bowes
Polaroid (UK)
Sortaweigh Division of Portals Engineering
ProMicro
Queensborough Rolling Mill Co
Queensgate Instruments
Rediffusion Simulation
The Regent Belt Company
The Elan Division of the Reiss Engineering Co
Rexodan
Reynolds Medical
Rolls-Royce
The Optical Devices Division of STC Defence Systems
Sco-Fro Foods
Seaborne Express
Seawheel
Serono Diagnostics
Shorko Films
Sigmex
Daniel Smith
Sperrin Metal Products
The Pressing & Assembly Division of Stadco
Technophone
Tiphook Group
Triplex Aircraft & Special Products
Varian-TEM
Verson Wilkins
Vickers Instruments
Walkers Shortbread
Wardley Export Finance
The Mostyn Unit of Warwick International
The Wedgwood Hotelware Division of Josiah Wedgwood & Sons
A R Wilmshurst trading as Soundwave
Wilson Jones & Company

Technological Achievement Awards

AES Engineering	Improved cartridge mounted mechanical seal
Airopak Division of Air Products	Solvent resistant polythene containers
The Filton Unit of the Civil Aircraft Division of British Aerospace The Aerodynamics Department of the Royal Aircraft Establishment* of the Ministry of Defence	A320 wing
The Speciality and Aerospace Division of British Alcan Aluminium The Materials and Structures Department of the Royal Aircraft Establishment* of the Ministry of Defence	Lightweight aluminium alloys
The Headquarters Technical Department of the British Coal Corporation	Detection method for geological faults in coal seams
The On-Line Inspection Centre of British Gas	On-line pipeline inspection system
The Research and Development Department of British Gypsum	Improved kettle for calcination of gypsum

continued on page 172

Technological Achievement Awards – continued

John Brown Automation	Automated system for manufacturing automotive clutches
The Vascutek Division of Coats Viyella Medical	Non-porous vascular prosthesis
Crosrol	High-performance carding machine
Cybrid	Automated pattern scanning and nesting system for textiles
Dowty Meco	Heavy duty armoured flexible conveyors for longwall coal mining
Dowty Filtration Technology Division of Dowty Mining Equipment	Automatic self-cleaning filtration system for coal mining
Eley	Percussion-type primers for ammunition
The Instrument Systems Division of GEC Avionics	Standard Control Air Data Computers
GKN Composites GKN Technology	Glass fibre and epoxy resin vehicle leaf springs
Graseby Ionics	Hand-held chemical agent monitor
Herga Electric	Fibre optic sensors
Hydraroll	Slip chain and roller track system
IBM United Kingdom Laboratories	High density magnetic storage sub-system
The Systems Engineering and Development Unit of ICL Mainframe Systems of International Computers	Mainframe computer system
IMI Titanium	Creep resistant titanium alloys for aircraft
The Automotive Group of ICI Paints Division of Imperial Chemical Industries	Low-emission surface coating
Itek Colour Graphics	Colour separation scanner for printing
Materials Technology Group of the Laboratory of the Government Chemist	Dental restorative material
Malvern Instruments	Particle measurement laser instrument
K S Paul Products	Anti-seize and anti-corrosive lubricant
Quantel	Digital video recording, editing, processing and compositing system
Queensgate Instruments	Servo-stabilised scanning interferometer
Racal Marine Systems	Microwave electronic positioning system
Response Company	Solid state electricity meters and energy audit systems
Reynolds Medical	High-speed electro-cardiogram analysis system
The Tay Project of Rolls-Royce	Tay engine
Safecom	Deep mine communications and safety system
Sigmex	Computer graphic terminals and generators
Technophone	World's smallest pocket cellular telephone
Thurne Engineering Company	High-speed industrial food slicer
Tunnel Refineries	Production of vital gluten and glucose syrup from British wheat
Varian-TEM	Radiotherapy simulator
Vickers Instruments	Optical measuring instrument

*Now renamed the Royal Aerospace Establishment.

Oil and Gas

The world oil market continued weak and Britain's oil production fell by just under 3 per cent in 1987, according to the Department of Energy's 1988 review of oil and gas development, published on 25 April.[1] However, gas production rose by just over 5 per cent; there was a significant increase in development drilling; and the British share of the value of orders by the offshore supplies industry rose to 87 per cent.

[1] *Development of the Oil and Gas Resources of the United Kingdom.* HMSO, £20. ISBN 0 11 412891 X.

Oil and Gas Production

Britain's total oil production declined from 127 million tonnes in 1986 to 123·3 million tonnes in 1987. This latter figure included 4·9 million tonnes of

Table 1

Oil Production

million tonnes

Offshore fields	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
North Alwyn	—	—	—	—	—	0·1
Argyll	1·0	0·7	0·4	0·4	0·5	0·4
Auk	0·6	0·6	0·6	0·5	0·5	0·5
Balmoral	—	—	—	—	†	1·6
Beatrice	1·6	1·5	2·2	2·5	2·0	1·6
Beryl	4·4	3·8	4·3	4·9	4·6	4·4
South Brae	—	1·0	3·9	4·1	5·1	4·8
Brent	15·2	18·7	20·0	19·9	19·5	17·7
Buchan	1·4	1·6	1·1	0·9	1·1	1·0
Claymore	4·8	4·7	5·0	4·3	3·9	4·0
Clyde	—	—	—	—	—	1·6
North Cormorant	1·3	2·1	4·4	5·0	5·0	4·1
South Cormorant	0·9	1·5	1·7	2·0	2·2	1·9
Deveron	—	0·1	0·1	0·3	0·3	0·3
Duncan	—	0·1	0·6	0·7	0·4	0·2
Dunlin	3·9	3·5	3·1	2·5	2·0	2·4
Forties	22·2	21·7	20·3	18·4	16·5	15·9
Fulmar	2·6	5·7	6·0	5·2	7·5	7·2
Heather	1·7	1·3	1·2	1·1	1·0	0·9
Highlander	—	—	—	1·0	1·3	1·4
Hutton	—	—	1·3	2·8	3·8	3·0
North-West Hutton	—	1·9	2·4	2·2	2·3	1·4
Innes	—	—	—	0·2	0·2	0·1
Magnus	—	1·5	5·6	6·0	6·0	6·0
Maureen	—	0·8	3·8	3·8	3·6	3·5
Montrose	0·9	0·7	0·8	0·6	0·6	0·6
Murchison (UK)	4·4	4·4	2·9	3·1	2·8	2·9
Ness	—	—	—	—	—	0·3
Ninian	15·0	13·7	11·6	10·9	9·7	7·5
Petronella	—	—	—	—	†	0·5
Piper	9·8	9·6	8·9	9·0	8·4	8·0
Scapa	—	—	0·1	0·2	0·4	1·0
Statfjord (UK)	1·8	3·0	3·5	4·5	5·4	5·7
Tartan	0·6	1·1	1·2	1·2	1·0	1·6
Thistle	6·0	5·1	4·2	3·7	3·0	2·7
Crude oil from offshore fields*	100·1	110·6	121·0	122·1	120·7	117·1
Crude oil from onshore fields*	0·2	0·3	0·3	0·4	0·5	0·5
Liquefied products from oil and gasfields:						
Condensate	0·5	0·6	0·6	0·7	0·7	0·8
Heavier natural gases	2·4	3·5	4·1	4·4	5·1	4·9
Total production	103·2	114·9	125·9	127·5	127·0	123·3

*Includes condensates and residual dissolved gases present in the disposal of stabilised crude oil by the industry.
†Less than 50,000 tonnes.
Notes: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

heavier natural gases, 0·8 million tonnes of condensate and 0·5 million tonnes of onshore crude oil (of which 0·3 million tonnes were produced from the Wytch Farm field and the remainder from minor fields in the East Midlands, Hampshire and Dorset). Three new offshore oilfields came onstream in 1987, bringing the total number in production to 35 (see Table 1). In 1987 gas produced from the United Kingdom Continental Shelf (UKCS) amounted to 47,641 million cubic metres,[1] as compared with 45,309 million cubic metres in 1986 (see Table 2). Supplies of UKCS gas to British Gas accounted for 78·4 per cent of its total supplies (UKCS production plus imports). Three new offshore gasfields came onstream in 1987, bringing the number in production to 18.

[1]1 cubic metre = 35·31 cubic feet.

Exploration and Development

During 1987, 69 exploration and 63 appraisal wells were started. As in 1986, the mature provinces of the northern North Sea accounted for about 95 per cent of this drilling activity.

Nineteen offshore discoveries were announced in 1987: five of oil, two of oil and gas, nine of gas, one of oil, gas and condensate, one of gas and condensate, and one of condensate. Onshore, 31 explo-

Table 2
Gas Production

million cubic metres

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
West Sole	1,512	1,719	1,899	1,771	1,695	1,576
Leman	11,675	11,985	9,376	10,943	10,029	10,903
Hewett Area	4,108	3,851	3,631	3,413	3,336	2,720
Indefatigable	5,720	4,700	5,590	5,323	6,186	6,430
Victor	—	—	472	1,485	1,600	1,578
Viking Area	4,381	3,413	3,197	3,450	3,712	3,166
Rough	101	27	55	92	7	—
Frigg	6,087	6,063	6,167	6,241	5,720	5,310
Piper/Tartan area*	667	848	796	807	777	944
FLAGS†	2,144	4,277	5,271	6,139	6,561	6,435
Fulmar	—	—	—	—	196	507
South Morecambe	—	—	—	90	604	1,441
Esmond	—	—	—	591	970	1,202
Forbes	—	—	—	107	305	467
Gordon	—	—	—	177	528	484
Thames	—	—	—	—	351	1,106
Yare	—	—	—	—	—	210
Bure	—	—	—	—	—	270
North and South Sean	—	—	—	—	202	391
North Alwyn	—	—	—	—	—	1
Other offshore gas‡	1,437	1,807	2,066	2,332	2,510	2,482
Onshore gas	9	10	9	10	20	18
Total	37,841	38,700	38,529	42,971	45,309	47,641

*Gas used offshore or delivered to land via the Frigg pipeline system.
†Gas delivered to land via the FLAG system gas pipeline.
‡Associated gas produced and used mainly on Northern Basin oil production platforms.

Table 3
Taxes and Royalties attributable to UKCS Oil and Gas

£ million

	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88 (provisional)
Royalties	1,632	1,904	2,426	2,057	918	1,000
Supplementary petroleum duty*	2,395	—	—	—	—	—
Petroleum revenue tax†	3,274	6,017	7,177	6,375	1,188	2,300
Corporation tax						
Before advance corporation tax (ACT) set-off	521	877	2,425	2,911	2,676	1,400
ACT set-off	202	430	1,237	1,080	1,130	700
Mainstream corporation tax	319	447	1,188	1,831	1,546	700
Total	7,822	8,798	12,028	11,343	4,782	4,700

*Abolished at the end of 1982.
†Includes advance petroleum revenue tax.
Note: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

ration and 7 appraisal wells were started and four discoveries made: three in southern England and one in the East Midlands.

Nine offshore oilfields and seven offshore gasfields were under development on the UKCS at the end of 1987, and 83 oil and 41 gas development wells were started during the year.

Reserves

The estimate of proven plus probable initially recoverable oil reserves in present discoveries has been increased from 2,280 million tonnes in 1986 to 2,360 million tonnes in 1987, mainly as a result of reclassification as 'proven' of reserves previously designated 'possible' and 'probable'. There have also been increases in the reserves of certain onshore fields. Possible reserves were reduced by some 80 million tonnes, new reserves being insufficient to counterbalance the results of further appraisal on possible reserves and the transfers into the proven and probable classes. The maximum total remains at 3,000 million tonnes. After taking account of cumulative oil production to the end of 1987 – 1,075 million tonnes – remaining recoverable

Table 4

Britain's Primary Fuel Consumption compared with Oil and Gas Production

million tonnes of oil or oil equivalent

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987 (provisional)
Primary fuel consumption:						
Coal	65·1	65·6	46·5	62·0	66·8	68·2
Petroleum	75·5	72·4	89·9	78·3	77·7	75·4
Natural gas	42·2	44·0	45·0	48·4	49·2	50·4
Nuclear electricity	9·4	10·6	11·5	13·0	12·6	11·7
Hydro-electricity	1·4	1·4	1·2	1·3	1·4	1·2
Total	193·6	194·0	194·1	203·0	208·6	209·6
Oil production	103·2	114·9	125·9	127·8	126·9	123·2
Gas production	33·0	34·0	33·2	37·1	38·9	40·4

Note: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

Table 5

Analysis of orders* placed for goods and services for developments on the UKCS during 1987

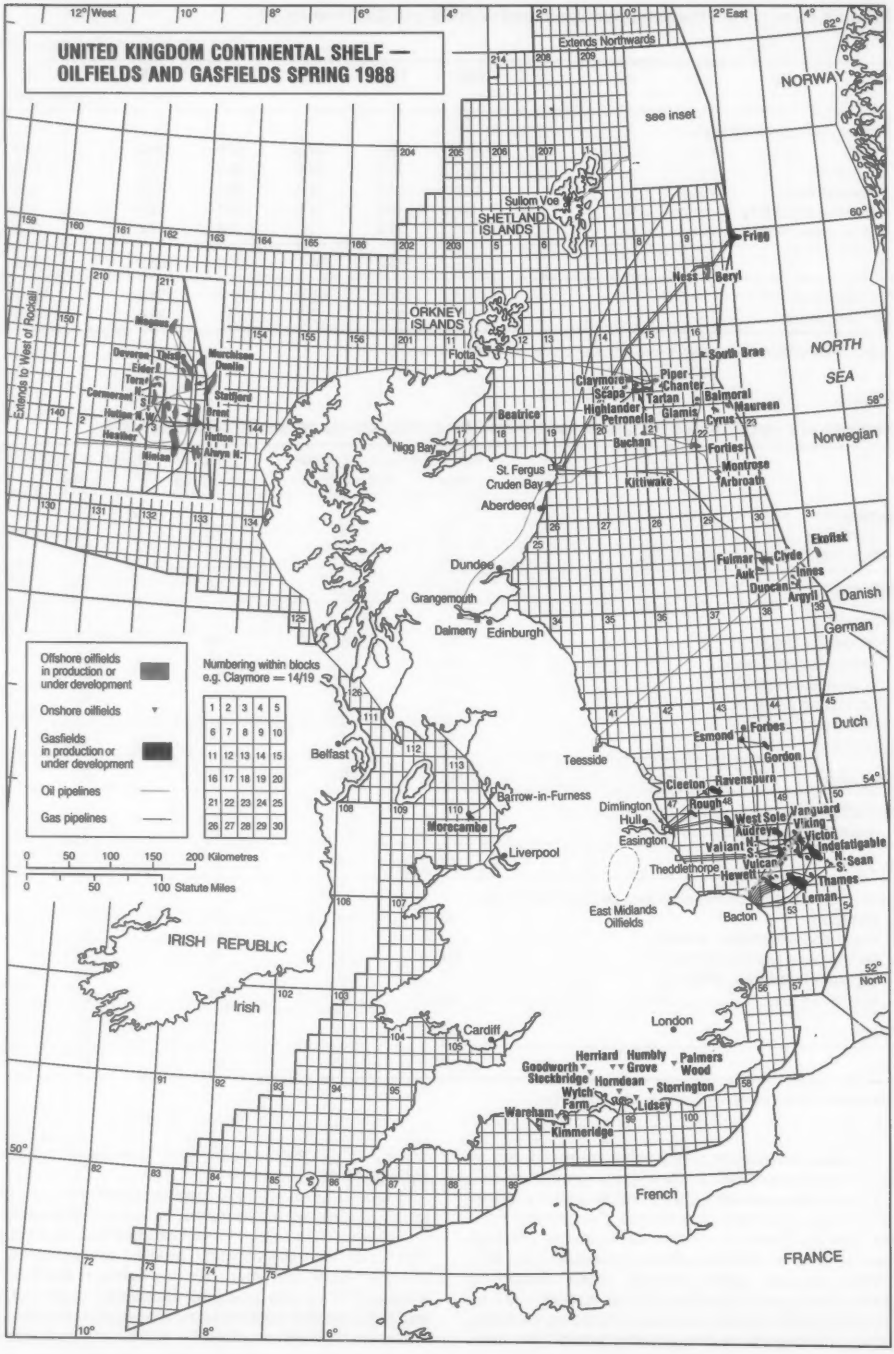
	Value of orders in £ million		British percentage	British percentage in 1986
	Total	British share		
Exploration				
Surveying	50	41	82	83
Exploration and appraisal drilling	102	93	91	92
Sub-total	152	134	88	89
Development				
Production platforms	373	352	94	82
Installation operations	88	75	85	77
Plant and equipment	267	234	88	86
Submarine pipelines	104	74	71	59
Development drilling	46	42	91	92
Terminals	30	27	90	85
Sub-total	908	804	89	80
Production				
Maintenance and production	159	150	94	97
Sub-total	159	150	94	97
General Services (excluded wherever possible from above)				
Transport	188	165	88	88
Diving and underwater services	57	51	89	90
Drilling tools and equipment	297	226	76	78
Support of personnel offshore	72	66	92	67
Miscellaneous	36	34	94	91
Sub-total	650	542	83	82
Total	1,869	1,630	87	82

*The figures represent orders over £100,000 in value for all sectors.

oil reserves in present discoveries are estimated to be in the range of 690-1,930 million tonnes.

Proven plus probable plus possible initially recoverable gas reserves in present discoveries now stand at 2·572 million million cubic metres. Proven plus probable reserves have increased to 1·920 million million cubic metres. After deducting cumulative gas production to the end of 1987 of 622,000 million cubic metres, remaining recoverable gas reserves in present discoveries are estimated at 644,000 million to 1·95 million million cubic metres.

Forecasting of oil and gas reserves yet to be found, the report again warns, is subject to greater uncertainty than calculation of estimates of reserves that have been discovered. Detailed assessments, however, have been made for the northern and central North Sea; the Southern Basin and Irish Sea; and the East Midlands and south-east England. Estimates for undiscovered oil lie in the range of 330-


UNITED KINGDOM CONTINENTAL SHELF — OILFIELDS AND GASFIELDS SPRING 1988
Extends Northwards
see inset
NORWAY
SHETLAND ISLANDS
Sullom Voe
Frigg
Ness
Beryl
ORKNEY ISLANDS
Flotta
Magnus
Thistle
Deveron
Eider
Tarve
Cormorant N.
Cormorant S.
Hutton N. W.
Hutton
Heather
Murchison
Dunlin
Stratfjord
Brent
Alwyn N.
Extends to West of Rockall
South Brae
NORTH SEA
Claymore
Piper
Chanter
Scapa
Tartan
Balmoral
Highlander
Petronella
Glamis
Maureen
Cyrus
Beatrice
Buchan
Forties
Montrose
Arbroath
Kittiwake
Nigg Bay
St. Fergus
Cruden Bay
Aberdeen
Norwegian
Ekofisk
Fulmar
Clyde
Auk
Innes
Duncan
Argyll
Danish
German
Dutch
Dundee
Grangemouth
Dalmeny
Edinburgh
Esmond
Forbes
Gordon
Offshore oilfields in production or under development
Onshore oilfields
Gasfields in production or under development
Oil pipelines
Gas pipelines
Numbering within blocks e.g. Claymore = 14/19
0 50 100 150 200 Kilometres
0 50 100 Statute Miles
Belfast
Teesside
Barrow-in-Furness
Morecambe
Liverpool
Dimlington
Hull
Easington
Cleeton
Ravenspurn
Rough
West Sole
Audrey
Vanguard
Viking
Victor
Indefatigable
N. Sean
S. Sean
Thames
Leman
Vulcan
Hewett
Valiant
Theddlethorpe
East Midlands Oilfields
Bacton
IRISH REPUBLIC
Irish
Cardiff
London
Herriard
Humbly Grove
Palmers Wood
Goodworth
Steckbridge
Horndean
Storrington
Wytch Farm
Lidsey
Warsham
Kimmeridge
French
FRANCE

2,460 million tonnes. For undiscovered gas, associated gas (that is, associated with oil accumulations) and condensate, the estimated range is 245,000-1·06 million cubic metres.

Economic and Industrial Aspects

In 1987 UKCS oil and gas production accounted for about 2 per cent of Britain's gross national product at factor cost. Total revenue from the sale of oil and gas produced from the UKCS in 1987 is estimated to have been £9,900 million and £2,000 million respectively. Tax and royalty receipts attributable to UKCS oil and gas are estimated to have been £4,700 million in 1987-88 (see Table 3).

Gross capital investment in the mineral oil and natural gas extraction industry (including investment by drilling and other contractors providing services to the industry) is estimated at some £2,100 million in 1987, about one-eighth of British industrial investment and 3 per cent of gross domestic fixed capital formation. Total investment between 1965 and 1987 is estimated to have been about £33,000 million (£47,000 million at 1987 prices). Some 28,200 people were employed offshore in September 1987.

Table 4 shows the relationship between oil and gas production and primary fuel consumption. Britain's production of oil and gas in 1987 corresponded to about 59 per cent and 19 per cent of total primary fuel consumption respectively. Oil production, at 123·3 million tonnes, exceeded consumption (75·4 million tonnes), and there was a substantial export and import trade in crude oil.

In 1987 the total value of orders reported by operators for oil and gas development work on the UKCS was £1,869 million, of which the British share was £1,630 million (87 per cent), the largest share ever won by the British offshore supplies industry. Owing to the fall in oil prices, the 1987 level of activity, expressed as an average over the year, declined in most phases of offshore work. However, the autumn saw a marked upturn in exploration and appraisal drilling, with an increase in business for British engineering contractors and service companies (see Table 5).

Licensing

Proposals for an eleventh round of offshore petroleum licensing were announced by the Secretary of State for Energy, Mr Cecil Parkinson, in the House of Commons on 24 March (*Hansard*, Vol 130, No 122, written answers, cols 179-80). He said that he would invite applications for a range of mature and frontier blocks of the UKCS and that he proposed 'to introduce some changes designed to speed up the turnover of exploration acreage which remains unworked for long periods'.

Details of the second onshore petroleum licensing awards were given in March (see p 120).

Northern Ireland

In 1987 the Department of Economic Development for Northern Ireland granted a licence covering 350 sq km (135 sq miles) to increase the level of onshore exploration activity. At the end of 1987 two petroleum licences covering 1,842 sq km (711 sq miles) were in operation.

Road Safety

Major changes in the law relating to road traffic offences have been proposed by a review of road traffic law. Other recent developments include a series of measures designed to improve safety on motorways and the issue of the provisional statistics of road accident casualties in Great Britain for 1987, which indicate that the number of deaths fell by 5 per cent to the lowest level since 1954.

Road Traffic Law

The review was inaugurated in 1985 to consider the improvements that might be made to various aspects of road traffic law. These included the structure of, and penalties for, offences connected with reckless and careless driving; driver licensing, construction and use of vehicles, and failure to comply with traffic signs; the system of penalty points, which are awarded for traffic offences, varying according to the severity of the offence; and whether new types of penalty would be appropriate. The report of the committee, under the chairmanship of Dr Peter North (Principal of Jesus College, Oxford), was published on 12 April[1]; and its 137 recommendations are being considered by the Government.

Introducing the report, Dr North said that, to be effective, the legal framework needed 'to be understood by road users, to be readily enforceable and to be able to respond flexibiy and appropriately to detected offences'. Accordingly, the committee aimed to maximise the contribution of the law to road safety, while at the same time avoiding the imposition of unnecessary controls. The recommendations were designed to distinguish more clearly between lesser offences (such as minor carelessness), which should generally be handled out of court, and unsafe and irresponsible behaviour, which should lead to criminal proceedings. For example, the committee recommended that the police should respond more often to minor offences by giving warnings and advice. For more serious offences the committee recommended a wider range of penalties, with greater use of heavy fines, disqualification and orders to retake a driving test. The greatest public concern was about the extremely bad driver, especially the drunken driver who caused death. The committee's recommendations would make it less likely that such drivers would be charged with only a minor offence.

Major Recommendations

The report proposes a number of major changes in the law:

1 The law relating to very bad driving offences (involving reckless driving, causing death) should be reformulated, with the term 'reckless' no longer being used. As this charge is so difficult to prove, drivers have often been charged only with careless driving or with drinking and driving when their conduct merited a more serious charge.

2 To encourage the use of charges of manslaughter or culpable homicide in the worst cases, the law

[1] *Road Traffic Law Review Report*. Department of Transport and Home Office. HMSO, £15. ISBN 0 11 550854 6.

should allow an offender to be convicted of a lesser charge when a greater one had been brought.

3 There should be a specific offence of bad driving causing death when the driver was unfit to drive through drink or drugs.

4 The penalty for failure to stop or to report a road accident should be increased to include a maximum of six months' imprisonment.

5 Disqualification should be obligatory rather than discretionary for the redefined very bad driving offence.

6 All drivers disqualified from driving for a year or more (which includes all those convicted of drinking and driving) should have to retake an extended driving test before being allowed to resume driving.

7 There should be a major experiment in enabling courts to order those convicted of drinking and driving to attend training courses.

Other Recommendations

Many of the committee's other recommendations are designed to help the police to enforce the law and the courts to impose more appropriate penalties on road traffic offenders. Examples of the former are that cameras should be used to detect speeding offences and when drivers cross traffic lights on a red signal, with the photographic evidence used in court, while video cameras should be used by the police to record offending drivers breaking the law. The committee recommends an investigation of sentencing practices to discover why sentences vary across the country and to encourage the courts to use their full range of sentencing powers. Improved co-ordination of research into new technology is recommended, to improve the flow of information and to aid enforcement of the law, which should provide more flexibly for the use of new enforcement technology. Among the other specific recommendations are changes in procedures to make it easier to disqualify drivers for short periods, powers for the police to put wheel clamps on dangerous and untaxed vehicles, the prohibition of insurance policies protecting against the consequences of disqualification from driving, and measures to encourage drivers to carry their licences with them.

Motorway Safety

Details of a series of measures designed to improve motorway safety were announced on 7 April by the Secretary of State for Transport, Mr Paul Channon, and set out in a booklet *Motorway Safety*.[1] Motorways are Britain's safest roads and the booklet says that the motorway network is 'one of the safest in the world and provides an essential contribution to the fast and efficient movement of goods and people'. However, where accidents occur, the likelihood of being killed or seriously injured is higher than on other types of road, as a result of the speeds involved. A review of motorway safety identified the direct cause of most accidents as driver error and concluded that new efforts must be made to improve driving skills that are most relevant to motorway conditions, and to help drivers to understand and follow the most important signs and rules. It also identified a number of new measures on road engineering and vehicle safety to add to the list of measures in progress.

Driving Skills

The review confirmed that the principal problems faced by drivers on motorways were uncertainty about speed and distance, lack of knowledge about some important signs, and lack of lane discipline. Accordingly, the Government is proposing a number of measures including the publication of new basic guidance on the main safety rules for motorway driving; advice to learner drivers to take additional tuition on motorway driving after passing the driving test, and encouragement to instructors to offer such tuition as part of standard driving course packages; discussions with the police on ways of increasing the levels and impact of enforcement of the law; and support for forthcoming campaigns by the police on motorway safety and by the Institute of Advanced Motorists on improving driving skills and driving courtesy. A number of improvements in the clarity and use of motorway signs are proposed, while speed limits at major road works and contraflow systems on motorways will be made mandatory, and traffic at these sites will be monitored by video equipment.

Vehicles

Among recent improvements to vehicle design and technology, which have already contributed substantially to the safety of high-speed motorway driving, are the fitting of spray suppressors, compulsory for new heavy goods vehicles and trailers since 1986; and the gradual introduction by manufacturers of anti-lock braking systems, leading to significant improvements in braking capacity and helping to prevent 'jack-knifing' and 'trailer-swing' by articulated lorries. Under European Community rules, anti-lock braking systems will be compulsory for vehicles over 26 tonnes from October 1991. Improvements to coach safety involve a requirement from 1990 for single-deck coaches to have a stronger roof to give greater protection in the event of rolling over and for double-deck coaches to have improved emergency exits from the upper deck, while the Government intends to require speed limiters to be fitted to new coaches from April 1989 and to other coaches from April 1991. From October 1988 seat belts will have to be fitted to most front passenger seats and centre rear seats on new coaches, and passengers will be encouraged to wear the belts. The Government is consulting on its proposals for a new driver licensing system from 1991 (for publication details see p 82); one of the proposals is for an increase in the frequency of medical checks for drivers of heavy goods vehicles. A further range of measures is proposed on vehicle safety, for example on the use of hazard warning lights and on reducing the risk of fires caused by electrical components.

[1]Available unpriced from Road Safety Division, Department of Transport, 2 Marsham Street, London SW1P 3EB.

Road Accident Casualties in 1987*

	Killed	Seriously injured	Slightly injured	Total casualties	% change since 1986
Pedestrians	1,677	15,799	39,310	56,787	−7
Pedal cyclists	291	4,745	20,855	25,890	−1
Users of:					
Mopeds, motor scooters and motor cycles	716	12,987	31,590	45,292	−13
Cars	2,211	26,660	128,837	157,707	−1
Buses and coaches	14	801	8,080	8,895	−7
Goods vehicles	187	2,364	9,595	12,146	−1
Other vehicles	12	221	894	1,127	−3
Total	5,108	63,575	239,161	307,844	−4

*Figures are provisional; as statistics are separately estimated from incomplete returns, there are some differences between totals and the sums of their component parts.

Design and Construction of Motorways

The Department of Transport already has an extensive programme of initiatives to reduce the incidence and effects of motorway accidents including the extension of motorway lighting, the closure of unnecessary crossing points on the central reserve, improved ways of monitoring and maintaining skid resistance levels, a review of design standards for urban motorways and high-speed roads, and the development of variable message signs to keep drivers better informed of road and traffic conditions. Further measures are planned including the development of 'crash cushions' to reduce injuries from collisions with safety fences and other roadside features, and an experiment on the M1 motorway to see whether the installation of 70 mph (113 km/h) signs is effective in reminding drivers to keep within the required national speed limit.

Road Casualties in 1987

Road casualties in Great Britain fell by 4 per cent in 1987, in spite of an increase in traffic of 5 per cent, and the number of deaths in road accidents (5,100) was the lowest since 1954, according to detailed provisional figures issued by the Department of Transport on 14 April.[1] Serious injuries declined by 8 per cent to 63,600 in 1987 and slight injuries by 3 per cent to 239,000. The casualty rate per mile travelled fell by 9 per cent.

Casualties to nearly every group of road user declined (see table). Pedestrian deaths fell by 9 per cent to under 1,700, the lowest figure recorded, and deaths to users of motor cycles were the lowest for 40 years. Casualties to car users fell by 1 per cent and, with a 5 per cent increase in car traffic, this represented a fall in the casualty rate of 6 per cent. Child pedal cyclist casualties grew by 4 per cent in 1987, but the fall in adult casualties of 3 per cent resulted in total pedal cyclist casualties being 1 per cent lower than in 1986 and the casualty rate 4 per cent lower.

For information on the Government's road safety policy see pp 273-5, 1987, and COI reference paper *Road Safety in Britain*, No 45/86.

[1]Statistics are published in *Quarterly Road Casualties Great Britain, Fourth Quarter 1987*. Available from the Department of Transport, Sales Unit, Building 1, Victoria Road, South Ruislip. £4.

Shorter Notes

NEW BRITISH COINS

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr Nigel Lawson, has given the dates for the introduction of the new 5p and 10p coins (see p 24). The 5p coin will be introduced in June 1990 – rather earlier than previously suggested – and the 10p in June 1992. The dates for the demonetisation of the existing coins will be announced at a later stage.

Source: HM Treasury press notice, 6.5.88.

SHIPBUILDING

British Shipbuilders has been approached about the disposal of a number of its facilities, notably at Govan in Strathclyde and Appledore in Devon. The Government is considering these approaches in line with its policy of returning as much of the corporation as possible to the private sector.

The Minister of Trade and Industry, Mr Kenneth Clarke, told the House of Commons on 18 April that British Shipbuilders had received a letter of intent to purchase the Govan shipyard from Kvaerner Industries, a Norwegian company specialising in international gas ship technology. Kvaerner proposed to transfer its gas ship technology to the yard by giving project support and assistance for gas ships built there, and thereafter to develop Govan into its centre for gas ship technology in support of its worldwide activities in this sphere. Certain conditions were attached to the agreement. Kvaerner believed that some restructuring would be inevitable to ensure that the yard was fully competitive in the market place. As an important part of the agreement, Kvaerner undertook to place an order for two medium-sized liquid petroleum gas carriers to be built at Govan for delivery in 1990 and 1991. Mr Clarke said that the Government welcomed the proposals and hoped that the negotiations would succeed.

A number of expressions of interest had been made regarding the Appledore shipyard. However, Mr Clarke did not wish to run the risk of prejudicing

the discussions by giving further details at this stage.

Source: *Hansard,* Vol 131, No 132, cols 554-6.

EUROPEAN WINDTUNNEL

Britain has reached agreement with France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands to build a joint European Transonic Windtunnel in the Federal Republic at Cologne. The agreement on the £200 million project was signed in Cologne on 28 April, with the Royal Aerospace Establishment (formerly the Royal Aircraft Establishment) representing the British Government.

The windtunnel will come into operation by the end of 1992. Britain, France and the Federal Republic each have 31 per cent shares in the project and the Netherlands a 7 per cent share. Britain's share is being provided equally by the Department of Trade and Industry and the Ministry of Defence. As host country, the Federal Republic will pay 38 per cent of the construction costs, Britain and France 28 per cent each and the Netherlands 6 per cent.

High-speed and turbulent flight is difficult to simulate closely in existing European windtunnels, causing problems for aircraft design. The new facility will be able to simulate transonic speeds – those just below and just above the speed of sound – by reducing temperatures to −180°C (−292°F).

Welcoming the project, Mr Robert Atkins, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Industry, said that it would give Europe's aircraft industries the competitive edge needed to take them into the next century.

Source: Department of Trade and Industry press notice, 28.4.88.

SPACE POLICY

Britain is to join the Columbus project,[1] Europe's contribution to the United States-led international space station for the 1990s. The decision was announced on 18 April by the Minister of Trade and Industry, Mr Kenneth Clarke.

Mr Clarke said that Britain would seek a major role in constructing the Columbus polar satellite,[2] which would give British industry and users the opportunity for commercial exploitation of earth observation activities at minimum cost to the taxpayer. The Government would be putting more than £250 million into the project over the next ten years, enabling it to take a 5·5 per cent share in Columbus; British industry would be providing around £5 million. The project would provide more than 2,000 man-years of work in Britain. British Aerospace would be involved in constructing the satellite and other British companies would provide ground facilities for operational control and data processing.

Mr Clarke said the decision was a logical development of the Government's earlier decisions to join the European Space Agency's ERS-1 earth remote sensing satellite project, which was due for launch in 1990, and to establish a new Earth Observation Data Centre, costing £20 million, at Farnborough, Hampshire. The Government had told the European Space Agency in November 1987 (see pp 416-7, 1987) and again in February that it was interested in participating in earth observation, but would require projects in which it took part to be planned on a cost-effective basis and aimed at the maximum scientific, commercial and industrial benefits for the economies of the participating countries. The design concept of the Polar Platform element of the Columbus programme had been reviewed as a result of British doubts and the spacecraft would now be 'more efficient, more utilitarian and non-serviceable.'

Mr Clarke pointed out that, having decided to enter Columbus, the Government would not now be entering the Canadian RADARSAT project, for it was essentially a one-off project on a smaller scale than Columbus and would not offer as good a base for commercial exploitation. Britain could receive most of the information RADARSAT would provide through its membership of ERS-1 and Columbus.

Source: Department of Trade and Industry press notice, 18.4.88.

[1]The Columbus programme contains three elements: a pressurised laboratory module to be permanently attached to the core manned space station; a man-tended free-flying laboratory; and the Polar Platform for earth observation and remote sensing.

[2]The Columbus polar satellite uses radar technology to produce digital information which can be translated into detailed pictures showing, for example, crop developments, shipping movements, weather patterns and mineral deposits.

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY RESEARCH

Plans for closer working links between the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) and the Science and Engineering Research Council (SERC) in information technology (IT) research and development were announced on 6 May. The arrangements cover proposed expenditure of £90 million in 1988-89. The two bodies have collaborated for a number of years on research programmes.

The aim is the establishment of a unified framework for DTI and SERC support across the entire spectrum of IT research, ranging from fundamental work in institutes of higher education through collaborative LINK programmes (see pp 70-1) to industry-led activities, often carried out in conjunction with academic bodies.

The members of the new advisory structure will be drawn in roughly equal numbers from the industrial and academic sectors. It will be headed by an

advisory body which will advise the DTI and SERC on research programmes and resource allocation and on individual applications for support.

Other government departments are to be encouraged to join those programmes of interest to them.

Welcoming the announcement, the Secretary of State for Trade and Industry, Lord Young of Graffham, said that the decision brought into a single research effort all the work that the DTI and SERC had been undertaking on IT; it would further strengthen the links between industrial and academic researchers.

Source: DTI press notice, 6.5.88.

Shorter Note

COASTAL BATHING WATERS

Britain's bathing waters have significantly improved in quality since 1986, according to the results of a survey in 1987 of popular British coastal bathing waters. Making the announcement in the House of Lords on 5 May, the Minister of State for the Environment, Lord Caithness, said that 262 out of 374 bathing waters in England, Wales and Northern Ireland – 70 per cent – were considered to meet the mandatory bacteriological standards of the European Community Bathing Water Directive, adopted in 1975, compared with 62 per cent in 1986.

These results were encouraging, said Lord Caithness, and showed that Britain was making good progress in bringing bathing waters up to Community standards. The Government was reviewing with the water authorities its major programme of capital spending (about £70 million annually) which aims to improve bathing water quality, mainly through the construction of long sea outfalls.

In a statement to the House of Commons on the same day, the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Scotland, Lord James Douglas-Hamilton, announced that in 1987 19 out of 23 Scottish bathing waters met the standards of the Directive.

Sources: *Hansard* (*HL*), Vol 496, No 122, written answers, cols 814-19; Department of the Environment press notice, 5.5.88; *Hansard*, Vol 132, No 144, written answers, col 536.

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